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Modulation of charge carrier dynamics of $Na_xH_{2-x}Ti_3O_7$ -Au-Cu₂O Z-scheme nanoheterostructures through size effect



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ABSTRACT

For the first time we presented the interfacial charge carrier dynamics for three-component semiconductor-metal-semiconductor Z-scheme nanoheterostructure system. The samples were prepared by selectively depositing a thin layer of Cu₂O on the Au surface of Au nanoparticle-decorated Na_xH_{2-x}Ti₃O₇ nanobelts (denoted as ST-Au NBs) using the photodeposition method. For ST-Au-Cu₂O NB heterostructures, the embedded Au may act as carrier-transfer mediator to promote the electron transfer from the conduction band of ST to the valence band of Cu₂O. This vectorial charge transfer would give rise to electron accumulation at Cu₂O and hole concentration at ST, which achieved superior charge carrier separation over the two-component counterparts of ST-Au and ST-Cu₂O. The quantum size effect was significant in the deposited Cu2O, which was exploited to tune the band structure of Cu2O, modulate the charge carrier dynamics of ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs, and thereby enhance the resultant photocatalytic performance. Time-resolved photoluminescence spectra were measured to quantitatively analyze the electron transfer event between ST and Au for ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs, which was found dependent on the Cu₂O shell thickness. As the Cu₂O thickness decreased, ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs showed an increased electron-scavenging rate constant due to the increased driving force of electron transfer. The carrier dynamics results were fundamentally consistent with those of the performance evaluation in photocatalysis, in which ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs exhibited enhanced photocatalytic efficiency as the Cu₂O thickness decreased. Systematic understanding of the interfacial charge dynamics of Z-scheme mechanism shall pave the way for the realization of artificial photosynthesis by using heterogeneous photocatalysts, where the effectiveness of charge separation and the merit of high redox powers are determinant.

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1. Introduction

As inspired by the natural photosynthesis in green plants, "Z-scheme" charge transfer system has been intensively studied because it allows capture of a large part of the solar spectrum for solar fuel production [1–3]. In particular, spatial separation of the reduction and oxidation centers is attainable in such a two-step photoexcitation system, which can minimize the undesirable back-reaction to enhance the overall photoconversion efficiency [4,5]. Recently, all-solid-state three-component semiconductor-metal-semiconductor nanoheterostructures with Z-scheme mechanism have demonstrated much higher photocatalytic activity than the single- and two-component counterpart systems. For

semiconductor-metal-semiconductor Z-scheme nanoheterostructures, the embedded metal may act as carrier-transfer mediator to promote a vectorial charge transfer pathway, which increases the oxidizing and reducing powers for photocatalysis. Till now, miscellaneous kinds of semiconductor nanoheterostructures with Z-scheme band structure have been proposed and fabricated [6–19]. For example, CdS-Au-TiO₂ Z-scheme nanojunction showed much higher photocatalytic activity than individual constituents and binary counterparts toward the reduction of methyl viologen [6]. Besides, Z-scheme AgCl-Ag-TaON was successfully prepared, which exhibited superior photocatalytic performance in the degradation of organic dyes [7]. Moreover, C-doped TiO₂ was combined with Au and CdS to achieve a visible-light-responsive Z-scheme mechanism which demonstrated superb photocatalytic H₂ generation [8]. These developments have witnessed a rising demand for the realization of Z-scheme mechanism to further the advancement of photoconversion technology.

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Modulation of charge carrier dynamics is important to the development of light-energy conversion system that utilizes semiconductor nanoheterostructures [20-25]. In Yang's study, the interfacial charge dynamics of Au-CdS core-shell nanocrystals have been investigated with time-resolved photoluminescence (PL) spectroscopy. By probing the PL lifetime of CdS, the electron transfer rate constant from CdS shell to Au core can be quantitatively analyzed, which was in good accordance with the results of photocatalytic activity evaluation [23]. On the other hand, the high correlation between photoconversion efficiency and interfacial charge dynamics was revealed in CdSnO₃decorated CdS nanowires, which is a representative example of semiconductor-semiconductor nanoheterostructures [24]. Furthermore, three-component In₂O₃-TiO₂-Pt heterojunction system was also investigated and the results showed that upon the deposition of Pt, In₂O₃-TiO₂ showed an increased electron-scavenging rate constant as well as an enhanced photocatalytic efficiency [25]. These findings demonstrated that charge carrier dynamics could provide further insights into the factors dictating the overall carrier utilization efficiency, which is imperative to design the optimal semiconductor nanoheterostructures for various photoconversion applications. However, there are very few studies in the literature regarding the charge carrier dynamics of three-component Z-scheme system, and their correlation with the resultant photoconversion efficiency is rarely reported. Therefore, a quantitative study on this topic is essential to both the basic understanding and the practical realization of Z-scheme mechanism.

In this work, we presented the interfacial charge dynamics of Z-scheme nanoheterostructures by using Na_xH_{2-x}Ti₃O₇-Au-Cu₂O as the model system. The samples were prepared by selectively depositing a thin layer of Cu₂O on the Au surface of Au nanoparticledecorated Na_xH_{2-x}Ti₃O₇ nanobelts (denoted as ST-Au NBs). For ST-Au NBs, the surface-decorated Au can serve as an effective electron acceptor for ST NBs due to its lower Fermi level (+0.50 V vs. NHE) [26] than the conduction band potential of ST $(-0.30 \,\mathrm{V}$ vs. NHE) [27]. As a consequence, the photoexcited electrons of ST NBs would preferentially transfer to Au nanoparticles, leaving photogenerated holes at ST NBs to achieve charge separation. Because of the electron-charged feature of Au under light illumination, Cu₂O can be further deposited on the Au surface of ST-Au NBs using a delicate photodeposition method, which resulted in the formation of three-component ST-Au-Cu₂O Z-scheme NBs. With the introduction of Cu₂O on the Au surface of ST-Au NBs, the scavenged electrons at Au can transfer to the valence band of Cu₂O and recombine with the photogenerated holes of Cu₂O (+0.67 V vs. NHE) [28]. This vectorial charge transfer would give rise to electron accumulation at the conduction band of Cu₂O and hole concentration at the valence band of ST. The accumulated electrons at Cu₂O possessed high reduction activity because of the relatively high potential $(-1.50 \, \text{V})$ vs. NHE), while the concentrated holes at ST showed high oxidation power due to the substantially low potential (+3.30 V vs. NHE). Time-resolved PL measurements were conducted to explore the interfacial charge dynamics for the as-prepared ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs. By probing the emission lifetime of an indicator dye, the electron transfer event between ST and Au for ST-Au NBs and its dependence on the Cu₂O deposition were quantitatively analyzed. As a result of the significant quantum effect of the deposited Cu₂O, ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs with various Cu₂O thicknesses exhibited tunable relative band offsets, which was exploited to adjust the driving force of electron transfer and therefore modulate the interfacial charge dynamics. The charge carrier transfer in ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs was further characterized with a photocatalytic process. The results showed that ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs surpassed pristine ST NBs, and two-component ST-Au NBs and ST-Cu₂O NBs in photocatalytic activity, presumably due to the more pronounced charge separation property of ST-Au-Cu₂O Z-scheme system.

2. Experimental

2.1. Chemicals

All chemicals were of analytical grade and used without further purification.

2.2. Preparation of ST NBs and ST-Au NBs

The detailed synthetic approach and relevant characterizations of ST NBs and ST-Au NBs can be found in our previous work [27]. Briefly, Degussa P-25 TiO₂ powder (1.0 g), absolute ethanol (10 mL), and NaOH aqueous solution (10 mL, 10 M) were mixed and allowed for hydrothermal reaction at 200°C for 24 h. The resultant white slurry was collected by suction filtration and washed with deionized water until the pH of washing solution reached 7.0. The product (ST NBs) was then dried at 60 °C in air for later use. To decorate NBs with Au nanoparticles, ST NBs of 6.0 mg were first dispersed in the reaction solution containing 60 mL deionized water and 30 mL ethanol, followed by the addition of 600 µL NaOH solution (0.1 M). After heated to 50 °C, 60 µL of HAuCl₄ solution (5 mM) was added and the reaction solution was kept at 50 °C for 3 h. The product (ST-Au NBs, with the Au content of 1.0 wt%) was centrifuged, washed with deionized water and ethanol, and then dried at 60 °C in air for later use.

2.3. Preparation of ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs

To deposit Cu₂O on the Au surface of ST-Au NBs, 5.0 mg of ST-Au NBs were first dispersed in 10 mL ethanol, followed by the addition of 100 µL NaOH aqueous solution (0.1 M) and 150 µL Cu²⁺-citrate solution. Cu²⁺-citrate solution was prepared by mixing 5 mM CuCl₂ and 25 mM sodium citrate in deionized water. The mixed solution was stirred for 30 min in the dark, and then irradiated by a xenon lamp (500 W, with a light intensity of 100 mW/cm²) at room temperature for 24 h. The product (ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs) was centrifuged, washed with deionized water and ethanol, and then dried at 60 °C in air for later use. In this work, various volumes of Cu²⁺-citrate solution (150, 100, 50 µL) were employed to produce ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs with different Cu₂O thicknesses. The thus-obtained products were respectively denoted as ST-Au-Cu₂O₋150, ST-Au-Cu₂O₋100 and ST-Au-Cu₂O₋50 NBs. For comparison purpose, two-component Cu₂O-decorated ST (ST-Cu₂O) NBs were also prepared by reacting pristine ST NBs with Cu²⁺-citrate solution (50 µL) in the photodeposition process.

2.4. Site-selective photodeposition of Pd and PbO₂

The photodeposition of Pd and PbO $_2$ on the selective sites of ST-Au-Cu $_2$ O NBs was carried out according to the previous report with slight modifications [29,30]. To deposit Pd on the Cu $_2$ O surface, 5 mg of ST-Au-Cu $_2$ O_50 NBs was dispersed in 10 mL deionized water, followed by the addition of a calculated amount of H $_2$ PdCl $_4$ (32 μ L, 0.037 M) in the dark. The reaction solution was then irradiated by a xenon lamp (500 W, with a light intensity of 100 mW/cm 2) at room temperature for 5 h. For the deposition of PbO $_2$ on the ST surface, Pb(NO $_3$) $_2$ (400 μ L, 0.01 M) was used as the Pb source and the same procedure mentioned above was applied except that O $_2$ acting as electron acceptor was bubbled through the reaction solution.

2.5. Preparation of N-doped TiO₂

N-doped TiO₂ was prepared by annealing P-25 TiO₂ powder in a mixed atmosphere of Ar (200 sccm) and NH₃ (10 sccm) at 500 °C for 2 h [20]. The x value of the product (TiO_{2-x}N_x) was estimated from

Table 1Fitting results for emission decay profiles of C343 in the presence of different samples.

Entry I	A_1	τ_1 (ns)	A_2	τ_2 (ns)	<τ> (ns)	χ^2	k_{et} (s ⁻¹)
C343	9910	3.77	1331	1.55	3.65	2.03	-
C343/ST	8995	3.60	1520	1.51	3.46	2.07	$0.15 \times 10^8 \text{ (C343} \rightarrow \text{ST)}^a$
C343/Au	9690	3.77	1390	1.54	3.64	2.15	$0.008 \times 10^{8} (C343 \rightarrow Au)^{a}$
C343/Cu ₂ O	9800	3.71	846	1.50	3.64	2.02	$0.008 \times 10^{8} (C343 \rightarrow Cu_{2}O)^{a}$
C343/ST-Au	4260	3.50	5093	1.47	2.82	2.20	$0.65 \times 10^8 \text{ (ST} \rightarrow \text{Au})^b$
C343/ST-Au-Cu ₂ O ₋ 150	4091	3.29	5273	1.41	2.62	2.25	$0.26 \times 10^8 \text{ (Au} \rightarrow \text{Cu}_2\text{O}150)^c$
Entry II	A_1	τ_1 (ns)	A_2	τ_2 (ns)	<τ> (ns)	χ^2	k_{es} (s ⁻¹)
C343/ST-Au-Cu ₂ O ₋ 150	4091	3.29	5273	1.41	2.62	2.25	$0.91 \times 10^{8} \text{ (ST} \rightarrow \text{Au-Cu}_{2}\text{O}_{-}150)^{d}$
C343/ST-Au-Cu ₂ O ₋ 100	3450	3.00	7260	1.35	2.24	2.20	$1.56 \times 10^{8} (ST \rightarrow Au-Cu_{2}O_{-}100)^{d}$
C343/ST-Au-Cu ₂ O ₋ 50	2139	2.58	8137	1.33	1.75	2.20	$2.81 \times 10^{8} (ST \rightarrow Au-Cu_{2}O_{-}50)^{d}$

- ^a The value was calculated by the expression $k_{\rm et}(C343 \rightarrow A) = (1/(\tau))(C343/A) (1/(\tau))(C343)$, where A = ST, Au, or Cu₂O.
- ^b The value was calculated by the expression $k_{\text{et}}(ST \rightarrow Au) = (1/(\tau))(C343/ST Au) (1/(\tau))(C343/ST) k_{\text{st}}(C343 \rightarrow Au)$.
- c The value was calculated by the expression $k_{et}(Au \rightarrow Cu_2O) = (1/\langle \tau \rangle)(C343/ST-Au-Cu_2O) (1/\langle \tau \rangle)(C343/ST-Au) k_{et}(C343 \rightarrow Cu_2O)$.
- ^d The value was calculated by the expression $k_{es}(A \rightarrow B-C) = (1/\langle \tau \rangle)(C343/A-B-C) (1/\langle \tau \rangle)(C343/A) k_{et}(C343 \rightarrow B) k_{et}(C343 \rightarrow C)$, where A = ST, B = Au, and $C = Cu_2O.150$, $Cu_2O.100$ or $Cu_2O.50$.

X-ray photoelectron spectra (XPS) measurement, approximately 0.28.

2.6. PL lifetime measurement

Time-resolved PL spectra were measured using a home-built single photon counting system. GaN diode laser ($\lambda = 375 \text{ nm}$) with the pulse duration of 50 ps was used as the excitation source. The signals collected at the excitonic emission of C343 (λ_{em} = 482 nm) were dispersed with a grating spectrometer, detected by a highspeed photomultiplier tube, and then correlated using a single photon counting card. Here, C343 $(1.0 \times 10^{-7} \, \text{M})$ was used as an indicator dye to monitor the interfacial charge dynamics of ST-Au- Cu_2O NBs. Upon laser excitation, the photoexcited electrons of C343 were injected into ST NBs due to the higher LUMO potential of C343 (-1.23 V vs. NHE) [31] than the conduction band potential of ST NB, which led to a significant quenching on the PL of C343. By comparing the emission decay profile between C343 and ST NBs-containing C343 (denoted as C343/ST), the electron transfer from C343 to ST NBs can be quantitatively determined. Further spectral comparison among C343/ST, C343/Au, C343/ST-Au samples may reveal the electron transfer event between ST and Au for ST-Au NBs. The emission decay data were analyzed and fitted with a biexponential model which generates two lifetime values, τ_1 and τ_2 , and the corresponding amplitudes, A_1 and A_2 . The intensity-average lifetime, $\langle \tau \rangle$, was then determined to make an overall comparison. All the fitting results were summarized in Table 1.

2.7. Photocatalytic activity measurement

The photocatalytic performance of ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs was evaluated by monitoring the photodegradation of MB under visible light illumination (500W xenon lamp, with a bandpass filter of 400-700 nm bandwidth). A quartz tube with a capacity of 20 mL was used as the photoreactor vessel. The photodegradation of MB in the presence of five types of photocatalysts, which included Ndoped P-25 TiO2, pristine ST NBs, ST-Au NBs, ST-Cu2O NBs and ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs, was evaluated. A typical experiment involved adding 5.0 mg of photocatalyst to 20 mL of MB aqueous solution $(2.0 \times 10^{-5} \text{ M})$ in the photoreactor vessel. Prior to irradiation, the suspension was stirred in the dark for 10 min to reach the adsorption equilibrium of MB with photocatalysts. At various time intervals throughout the irradiation, 1 mL aliquots of reaction solution were withdrawn and centrifuged to remove the photocatalyst. The UV-visible absorption spectrum of the filtrate was then acquired to measure the concentration variation of MB by recording the corresponding absorbance of the maximum intensity peak.

2.8. Characterizations

The morphology and dimensions of the samples were examined by a high-resolution transmission electron microscope (TEM, JEOL JEM-3000). The energy dispersive spectrometer (EDS) analysis was performed on the accessory of TEM (JEM-3000). X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurement was conducted on an Ulvac-PHI 1600 using Al K α radiation under high vacuum conditions. For steady-state photoluminescence (PL) spectroscopy, a Hitachi F-4500 equipped with 150 W xenon lamp was used. UV-visible absorption spectra were collected with a Hitachi U-3900H spectrophotometer at room temperature under ambient atmosphere.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Structural investigation

ST NBs with a typical width of 30-70 nm were first obtained in the alkaline hydrothermal process. Decoration of ST NBs with Au nanoparticles was then carried out using a chemical reduction method described in the previous work [27]. As shown in Fig. 1(a), the decorated Au had a size of 8-10 nm and was uniformly distributed on the NB surface. Further deposition of Cu₂O on the Au surface of ST-Au NBs was performed with a delicate photodeposition approach which used Cu²⁺-citrate complex as the copper source. Note that citrate has been employed as a capping reagent for stabilizing Au nanoparticle suspensions [32]. Here, the use of Cu²⁺-citrate may facilitate the approach of Cu²⁺ toward Au surface of ST-Au NBs because part of the citrate moieties may bind to the Au surface. This attribute is crucial to the later successful Cu₂O deposition on the Au surface. In addition, the use of Cu²⁺-citrate can prevent the precipitation of Cu(OH)₂ before Cu²⁺ was reduced to Cu⁺, thus promoting the growth of Cu₂O [33]. For ST-Au NBs, the band offset between ST and Au caused pronounced charge separation in which the photoexcited electrons of ST NBs preferentially transferred to Au. The electron-charged feature of Au for ST-Au NBs upon light irradiation can be utilized to deposit Cu₂O on the Au surface. When Cu²⁺-citrate was introduced in alkaline solution under light illumination, Cu²⁺ could be reduced to Cu⁺ and form the intermediate Cu(OH) which was further dehydrated to produce Cu₂O [34]. Because the electron-charged Au surface of ST-Au NBs may provide active sites for Cu²⁺-citrate binding and the subsequent Cu²⁺ reduction, the formation of Cu₂O could mostly occur at the Au surface of ST-Au NBs. Therefore, an exclusive deposition of Cu₂O on the Au surface of ST-Au NBs can be achieved, resulting in the formation of ST-Au-Cu₂O Z-scheme nanoheterostructures. Fig. 1(b)

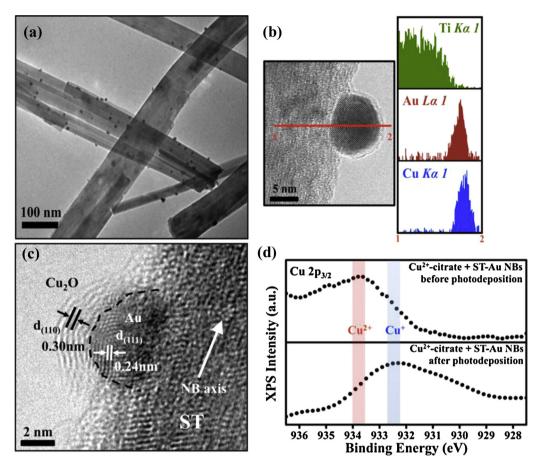


Fig. 1. (a) TEM image for ST-Au NBs, (b) TEM-EDS analysis and (c) HRTEM image for ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs. In (c), the interface between Cu₂O and Au was highlighted by a dashed line. (d) Cu 2p XPS spectra for Cu²⁺-citrate solution containing ST-Au NBs before and after the photodeposition process.

shows the TEM image of ST-Au NBs after they were reacted with Cu²⁺-citrate in the photodeposition process. Evidently, a hemispherical layer with considerably tiny thickness was deposited on Au surface only. The chemical composition of the deposited layer was further characterized with EDS, High-resolution TEM (HRTEM) and XPS measurements. The TEM-EDS analysis showed that the deposited layer was composed of Cu and O. In Fig. 1(c), the HRTEM image taken at the Au surface clearly revealed two distinct sets of lattice fringes, which can be respectively assigned to fcc Au and cubic Cu₂O [35]. Moreover, XPS characterization of Fig. 1(d) suggested the prevalence of Cu⁺ composition, which as ascribed to the formation of Cu₂O in the product. Note that the difference in binding energy between Cu⁺ (932.5 eV) and Cu²⁺ (933.8 eV) was sufficiently large to determine the copper valence of the sample [36–38]. This result, together with the findings from TEM, TEM-EDS and HRTEM, confirmed the successful deposition of Cu₂O on the Au surface of ST-Au NBs by using Cu²⁺-citrate as the copper source in the photodeposition process. The exact structural feature that Cu₂O was selectively deposited on the Au surface of ST-Au was vital for realizing the Z-scheme charge transfer mechanism.

3.2. Control of Cu_2O thickness

The thickness of Cu_2O layer deposited on the Au surface of ST-Au NBs can be further controlled by adjusting the amount of Cu^{2+} -citrate used. Fig. 2 displays the gradual decrease in the thickness of the deposited Cu_2O for ST-Au- Cu_2O NBs, which was achieved by employing Cu^{2+} -citrate solution of decreasing volumes. The grown Cu_2O had a uniform thickness and fully covered the whole Au surface. From the TEM observations, the average thickness of the

deposited Cu₂O layer was determined to be 1.4 ± 0.1 , 1.2 ± 0.1 and 1.1 ± 0.1 nm for the samples prepared with Cu²⁺-citrate solution of 150, 100 and 50 μ L, respectively. Note that under this thickness range, quantum confinement effect was significant in the deposited Cu₂O, which can be exploited to tune the band structure of Cu₂O and therefore modulate the charge carrier dynamics of ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs. Here we aimed to comprehend the interfacial charge dynamics of Z-scheme ST-Au-Cu₂O system and study their dependence on the band structure of Cu₂O by controlling the Cu₂O thickness.

3.3. Charge carrier dynamics of ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs

To confirm the Z-scheme charge transfer mechanism for the present ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs, site-selective photodeposition experiments were conducted [29,30]. Under light illumination, the ST body of ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs was enriched with photogenerated holes while the Cu₂O layer was charged by photoexcited electrons. The electrons accumulated at Cu₂O were readily available for the reduction reaction, which can be examined by carrying out the photoreduction of Pd²⁺ ions. As revealed in Fig. 3(a)–(c), Pd particles were mostly deposited on the Cu₂O surface instead of the NB surface. This observation manifested that Pd²⁺ ions could be selectively reduced on the Cu₂O surface of ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs as a result of the Z-scheme charge transfer. On the other hand, the holes concentrated at ST NBs were highly oxidative and could participate in the photoxidation of Pb²⁺. As Fig. 3(d)–(f) shows, PbO₂ particles were solely grown on the ST NB surface upon the photoxodiation of Pb²⁺, which also validated the vectorial charge transfer for ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs. The demonstrations from the site-selective photodeposition experiments not only provided solid evidence for the Z-scheme

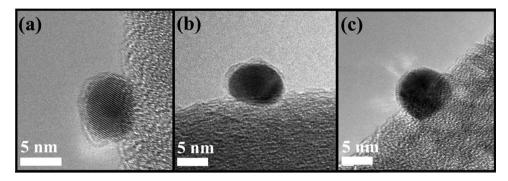


Fig. 2. TEM images of ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs prepared with different volumes of Cu^{2+} -citrate: (a) $150\,\mu\text{L}$, (b) $100\,\mu\text{L}$ and (c) $50\,\mu\text{L}$.

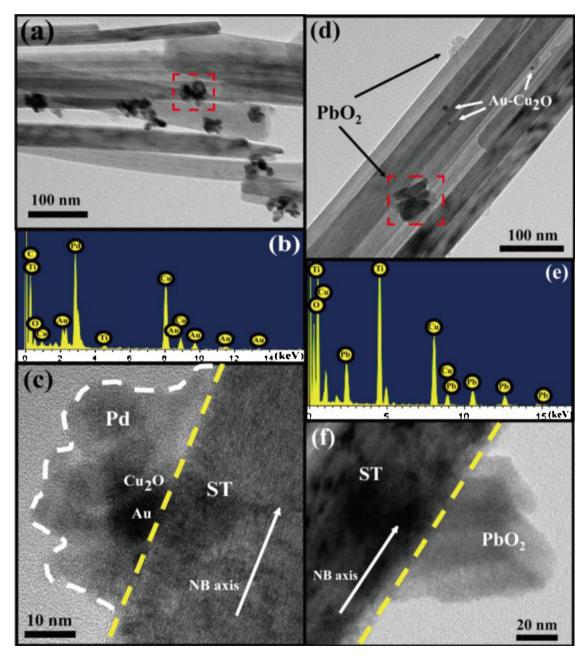


Fig. 3. (a) Typical TEM image, (b) TEM-EDS analysis, (c) TEM image taken at the interface region for ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs upon the photoreduction of Pb^{2+} . (d)–(f) shows the results for ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs upon the photooxidation of Pd^{2+} . The EDS spectra of (b) and (e) were respectively taken on the marked regions of (a) and (d).

mechanism but also ruled out the prevalence of other undesirable charge transfer pathways, such as the electron back transfer from the thin Cu₂O layer to Au.

In this work, an indicator dye of Coumarin 343 (denoted as C343) was used to explore the charge carrier dynamics for the NB products. With the carboxylate functional group which shows high affinity to Ti-O bonds, C343 has been widely used as a photosensitizer to inject photoexcited electrons into the conduction band of TiO₂ for dye-sensitized solar cell applications [31,39]. Here, we employed C343 as a probe molecule to characterize the interfacial charge dynamics of ST NBs. Specifically, the variation of PL intensity and PL lifetime at 482 nm may give insightful information about the fate of charge carriers following light irradiation. Fig. 4(a) shows the steady-state PL spectra of C343 under different experimental conditions. When pristine ST NBs of a given amount were dispersed in C343 (sample was denoted as C343/ST), the PL intensity of C343 was decayed. The PL decay of C343 became more significant as a commensurate amount of ST-Au NBs or ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs was introduced (sample was respectively denoted as C343/ST-Au or C343/ST-Au-Cu₂O). Note that for C343/ST, C343/ST-Au and C343/ST-Au-Cu₂O, photocatalysis did not occur to decompose C343 during the short time period of PL measurement. The as-observed PL decay of C343 in C343/ST, C343/ST-Au and C343/ST-Au-Cu₂O samples was thus mainly attributed to the occurrence of charge separation upon light irradiation. Because ST has a lower conduction potential (-0.30 V vs. NHE) than the lowest-unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) potential of C343 (-1.23 V vs. NHE), the photoexcited electrons of C343 would preferentially transfer to ST, leading to the depletion of free electrons for C343 and the subsequent decay of its PL. When Au was present on ST NBs, the photoexcited electrons of C343 may further transfer to Au through the ST/Au interface since Au has much lower Fermi level (+0.50 V vs. NHE). This phenomenon caused a higher extent of free electron depletion for C343, which was responsible for the more significant PL decay of C343 observed for C343/ST-Au. Similar interpretation may apply to C343/ST-Au-Cu₂O sample in which a much more pronounced decay of PL intensity was noticed and can be regarded as a result of the further electron transfer from the Fermi level of Au to the valence band of Cu₂O. It should be mentioned that the electronic interaction of C343 with pure Au or pure Cu₂O was insignificant because the PL of C343 was not decayed in the presence of Au or Cu₂O (data not shown here). This outcome supports the contention that the more significant PL decay of C343 for C343/ST-Au and C343/ST-Au-Cu₂O mainly resulted from the further electron transfer from ST to Au and then to Cu₂O.

To further elucidate the electron transfer event within the samples, time-resolved PL measurements were conducted. Fig. 4(b) compares the time-resolved PL spectra of C343 for four relevant samples. The emission decay profiles of C343 for the four samples all exhibited a biexponential model in which two decay components were derived. The intensity-average lifetime was calculated to make an overall comparison of the emission decay behavior. For pure C343, an emission lifetime of 3.65 ns was recorded, fairly close to the reported value of around 3.4-4.0 ns [31,40,41]. As to the C343/ST sample, a shortened emission lifetime of 3.46 ns was observed, indicating the emergence of a nonradiative pathway from the electronic interaction between C343 and ST. This suggestion was supported by the PL decay of C343 observed for C343/ST sample. It was assumed that the electron transfer from C343 to ST dictated the emission decay of C343 for C343/ST sample. The electron-transfer rate constant $(k_{\rm et})$ from C343 to ST can then be calculated by the expression $k_{\text{et}} (C343 \rightarrow ST) = (1/\langle \tau \rangle)(C343/ST) - (1/\langle \tau \rangle)(C343)$ [25], approximately $0.15 \times 10^8 \, s^{-1}$. Table 1 summarizes the electron-transfer rate constants of different processes calculated from the relevant samples. It should be noted that the emission lifetime of C343 in the presence of Au or Cu₂O were both 3.64 ns, giving $k_{\rm et}$ (C343 \rightarrow Au) and $k_{\rm et}$ (C343 \rightarrow Cu₂O) as 0.008 \times 10⁸ s⁻¹. This value was about two order of magnitude smaller than that of $k_{\rm et}$ (C343 \rightarrow ST), verifying the relatively insignificant electronic interaction of C343 with Au or Cu₂O. For C343 that contained ST-Au NBs, the average lifetime $(\langle \tau \rangle = 2.82 \text{ ns})$ was found shorter than that of C343/ST. Given that the electronic interaction between C343 and Au was relatively minor, we ascribed the C343 emission lifetime shortening of C343/ST-Au to the further electron transfer from ST to Au. By comparing the average lifetime of C343 between C343/ST-Au and C343/ST samples and deducting the contribution of electron transfer from C343 to Au, we obtained $k_{\rm et}$ (ST \rightarrow Au) as $0.65 \times 10^{-8} \, {\rm s}^{-1}$. When Cu₂O was present on the Au surface of ST-Au NBs (ST-Au-Cu₂O₋150), the shrinkage of C343 emission lifetime became more noticeable, inferring the further electron transfer from Au to Cu₂O through the Au/Cu₂O interface upon light irradiation. By use of an analogous calculation method, $k_{\rm ef}$ (Au \rightarrow Cu₂O₋150) was determined to be 0.26×10^{-8} s⁻¹, which was of the same order of magnitude as k_{et} (ST \rightarrow Au). This result confirms that Cu₂O acted as an effective electron scavenger for ST-Au NBs by accepting the photoexcited electrons from Au as is demonstrated in the Z-scheme mechanism. This vectorial charge transfer led to increasingly pronounced charge separation for ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs. To highlight the contribution of Cu₂O to the overall charge separation of NBs, Au and Cu₂O were regarded as an electron scavenger ensemble for ST. Accordingly, the rate constant of electron-scavenging from $ST(k_{es})$ can be computed, approximately $0.91 \times 10^8 \ s^{-1}$ for ST-Au-Cu₂O₋150 sample. It should be noted that although the time-resolve PL data were acquired from the indicator dye C343 instead directly from the NBs, the carrier dynamics results from this work still described the charge transfer events across the interface of ST-Au-Cu₂O, which may depict the charge transfer scenario for the practical Z-scheme mechanism.

3.4. Quantum size effect of Cu₂O

In CdS-Au-TiO₂ Z-scheme nanojunction system, the photocatalytic activity of the samples could be enhanced by appropriately reducing the thickness of the deposited CdS [6]. Due to the quantum size effect, the conduction band potential of CdS for CdS-Au-TiO₂ with reduced CdS thickness was raised, giving rise to increasingly strong reducing power to enhance the photocatalytic activity. Similar to the CdS-Au-TiO₂ system, the deposited Cu₂O in the present ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs was considerably thin and also exhibited quantum effect, which can be exploited to tune the band structure of Cu₂O and modulate the charge carrier dynamics of the samples. As a result of the varied band offset, an enlarged band energy difference could be attained in ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs, which might further increase the rate of electron scavenging from ST. As represented in Fig. 4(c), when the thickness of Cu₂O for ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs decreased from 1.4 to 1.2 nm, the emission lifetime of C343 was reduced from 2.62 to 2.24 ns. This phenomenon signifies that the 1.2 nm thick Cu₂O modulated the interfacial charge transfer of ST-Au NBs more significantly by attracting more electrons from ST, which conduced to the more pronounced charge carrier separation for ST-Au-Cu₂O₋100 with an electron-scavenging rate constant of $1.56 \times 10^8 \, \text{s}^{-1}$. Further decrease in the thickness of Cu₂O for ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs (1.1 nm) caused an even shorter emission lifetime of C343 ($\langle \tau \rangle = 1.75 \text{ ns}$), suggesting that charge separation of ST-Au-Cu₂O became increasingly conspicuous as Cu₂O of 1.1 nm thick was deposited. The corresponding electron-scavenging rate constant was estimated to be $2.81\times 10^8\ s^{-1}$. The increase of electron-scavenging rate constant for ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs with decreasing Cu₂O thickness can be understood from the more significant quantum size effect of Cu₂O which caused larger driving force of interfacial electron transfer. Note that the Bohr radius of Cu₂O is about 0.7 nm, signifying that quantum

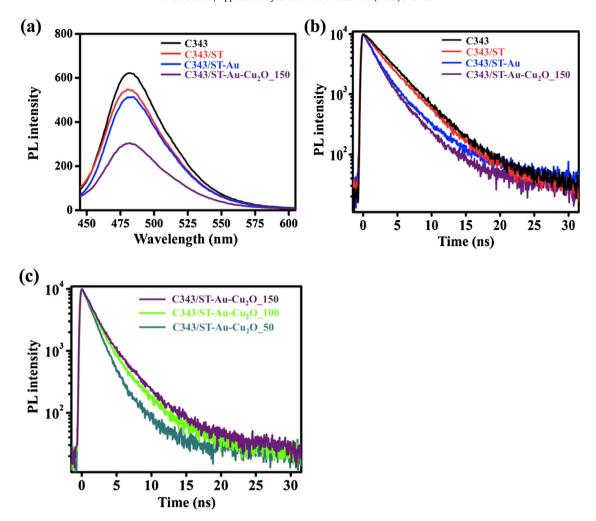


Fig. 4. (a) Steady-state PL spectra and (b) time-resolved PL spectra of C343 in the presence of different samples. (c) Comparison of PL decay profile for C343 that contained ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs with different Cu₂O thicknesses.

size effect becomes noticeable once the characteristic size of Cu_2O is smaller than 1.4 nm [42,43]. The average thickness of Cu_2O for the three ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs was essentially small, suggesting the prevalence of pronounced quantum size effect. The bandgap expansion for the deposited Cu_2O resulting from the size effect could be estimated by the Brus equation [43,44]:

$$E_{\rm g}^* = E_{\rm g}^{\rm bulk} + \frac{\hbar^2 \pi^2}{2\mu L^2} - \frac{1.8e^2}{\varepsilon L} - \frac{0.124e^4 \mu}{\hbar^2 \varepsilon^2 n^2}$$
 (1)

In (1), ε is the dielectric constant, μ is the reduced mass given by $1/\mu = \left(1/m_{\rm e}^* + 1/m_{\rm h}^*\right)$ where $m_{\rm e}^*$ and $m_{\rm h}^*$ are the effective masses of electrons and holes in the bulk Cu₂O, and L is the thickness of the deposited Cu₂O. By using the values of $m_{\rm e}^* = 0.99 \, m_0$, $m_{\rm h}^* = 0.58 \, m_0$, ε = 7.11 and $E_{\rm g}^{\rm bilk} = 2.17 \, {\rm eV}$ for Cu₂O, the bandgap of the deposited Cu₂O ($E_{\rm g}^*$) was calculated to be 2.76, 2.90 and 3.05 eV for ST-Au-Cu₂O₋150, ST-Au-Cu₂O₋100 and ST-Au-Cu₂O₋50, respectively. As the bandgap expanded with decreasing size, the energy level of conduction band and valence band respectively shifted toward higher and lower potential. The extent of such potential shifts can be computed using the following empirical expression [45]:

$$\Delta E_{\rm CB} = \frac{\hbar^2}{8m_e^* L^2} \tag{2}$$

$$\Delta E_{\rm VB} = \frac{\hbar^2}{8m_{\rm h}^*L^2} \tag{3}$$

With the results derived from (2) and (3), the band structure of the deposited Cu₂O in ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs can be further determined as follows. For ST-Au-Cu₂O₋150, ST-Au-Cu₂O₋100 and ST-Au-Cu₂O₋50, the conduction band potential of Cu₂O, respectively, shifted to $-1.72\,\mathrm{V}$, $-1.77\,\mathrm{V}$ and $-1.82\,\mathrm{V}$ vs. NHE, while the valence band potential of Cu₂O was located at +1.04V, +1.13V and +1.23 V vs. NHE. For the present Z-scheme ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs, the scavenged electrons at Au may further transfer to the valence band of Cu₂O and recombine with the localized holes. According to Marcus theory [46,47], the energy level between the Femi level of Au (donor state) and the valence band of Cu₂O (acceptor state) would determine the driving force for the interfacial electron transfer. This energy difference $(-\Delta G)$ [48,49] was 0.53, 0.62 and 0.72 eV for ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs with the Cu₂O thickness of 1.4, 1.2 and 1.1 nm, respectively. As the Cu₂O thickness decreased, the driving force of interfacial electron transfer for ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs increased, leading to the increasingly conspicuous charge separation and the enhanced electron-scavenging rate constant as observed.

3.5. Photocatalytic properties

To further correlate the carrier dynamics results with the photocatalytic efficiency of the samples, photocatalysis experiments were performed by using methylene blue (denoted as MB) as the test pollutant. MB is a typical dye that can be decomposed by reacting with the active oxygen species (e.g. ${}^{\bullet}$ OH and ${}^{\bullet}$ O $_{2}^{-}$ radicals)

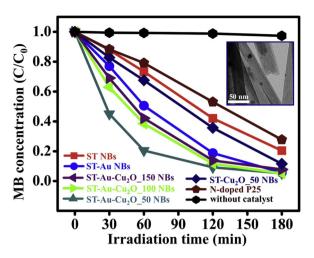


Fig. 5. C/C_0 vs. irradiation time plots for MB photodegradation without any catalyst and in the presence of five kinds of relevant samples. Inset shows the TEM image of ST-Cu₂O NBs.

following the irradiation on photocatalysts [50-54]. Note that the redox potentials of $O_2/^{\bullet}O_2^{-}$ and $H_2O/^{\bullet}OH$ are -0.046 and $+2.8\,V$ vs. NHE, respectively [55]. Since ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs had sufficiently high reducing (-1.50 V vs. NHE) and oxidizing powers (+3.30 V vs. NHE) under light illumination, both *OH and *O2- radicals could be generated and participate in the degradation of MB. Five kinds of photocatalysts, including N-doped P-25 TiO2, pristine ST NBs, ST-Au NBs, ST-Cu₂O NBs and ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs (ST-Au-Cu₂O₋150, ST-Au-Cu₂O₋100, ST-Au-Cu₂O₋50), were used for MB photodegradation under the same experimental conditions. Fig. 5 compares the MB photodegradation results of all the samples under visible light illumination, which revealed several important facts as stated below. First, all the three ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs performed better toward MB photodegradation than pristine ST NB, ST-Cu₂O NBs and ST-Au NBs did. Here, ST-Au and ST-Cu₂O NBs respectively represented the typical metal-semiconductor and semiconductor-semiconductor heterostructure systems [56,57] that have been widely developed for photocatalysis applications. The superiority of ST-Au-Cu₂O over the two-component counterparts of ST-Au and ST-Cu₂O illustrated the advantageous feature of Z-scheme mechanism in photocatalytic processes. Second, as compared to the N-doped P-25 TiO₂ powder, the three ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs all exhibited better photocatalytic performance under visible light illumination. It should be noted that ST NBs can effectively absorb visible light to carry out photocatalytic reactions [27]. The visible absorption of ST NBs derived from the intercalating Na atoms which invoked interband transition within the energy gap of ST to result in the redshift of absorption toward visible region. For ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs, the recorded visible absorption band was more pronounced (data not shown here), presumably resulting from the effective light absorption of Cu₂O. Because ST and Cu₂O were both capable of harvesting visible light, the present ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs may find promising potentials in efficient solar energy conversion. Third, ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs showed enhanced photocatalytic efficiency as the Cu₂O thickness decreased. This outcome was consistent with the results of charge carrier dynamics, in which an increased electron-scavenging rate constant was observed for ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs with decreasing Cu₂O thickness. As the Cu₂O thickness decreased, charge separation became increasingly conspicuous at the ST/Au interface, leaving abundant photoexcited electrons and holes at the conduction band of Cu₂O and the valence band of ST. The increase in the number of charge carriers further led to the enhancement in the photocatalytic performance. It should be mentioned that the three ST-Au-Cu₂O samples showed nearly identical MB adsorption

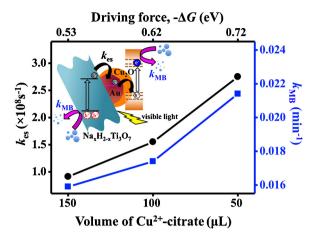


Fig. 6. Correlations of electron-scavenging rate constant $(k_{\rm es})$ and rate constant of MB photodegradation $(k_{\rm MB})$ with the amount of ${\rm Cu}^{2+}$ -citrate and the driving force $(-\Delta G)$ of electron transfer for ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs.

capability. After stirring in the dark for 10 min, 9.6, 9.5 and 9.7% of MB was adsorbed by using ST-Au-Cu₂O₋150, ST-Au-Cu₂O₋100 and ST-Au-Cu₂O₋50, respectively. This demonstration suggests that the origin of the observed enhancement of photocatalytic activity was not related to the structural effect concerning surface area or dye adsorption, but lay in the difference of charge carrier dynamics modulated by the Cu₂O thickness. To quantitatively compare the photocatalytic performance of the three ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs, the rate constant of MB photodegradation ($k_{\rm MB}$) was calculated using the pseudo-1st-order approximation, which gave k_{MB} value of 0.015, 0.017, and 0.021 min⁻¹ for ST-Au-Cu₂O₋150, ST-Au-Cu₂O₋100 and ST-Au-Cu₂O₋50, respectively. As displayed in Fig. 6, the trend in k_{MB} variation for ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs with decreasing Cu₂O thickness corresponded well with that in k_{es} change. This correspondence manifests that understanding of charge carrier dynamics is conducive to the realization of Z-scheme mechanism. As a final note, the plasmonic effect [7,58] of Au was suggested to be insignificant in the current system considering that the content of Au of ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs was as low as 1.0 wt%. With this consideration, the correlation between charge carrier dynamics and photocatalytic efficiency for the present ST-Au-Cu₂O Z-scheme system can be validated.

4. Conclusions

In conclusion, ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs were prepared and used as the model system to investigate the interfacial charge dynamics of Zscheme charge transfer mechanism. With the deposition of Cu₂O on the Au surface of ST-Au NBs, a vectorial charge transfer from ST, through Au, finally to Cu₂O was achieved in ST-Au-Cu₂O, giving rise to superior charge separation property over the two-component counterparts of ST-Au and ST-Cu₂O. The quantum size effect was significant in the deposited Cu₂O, which was exploited to tune the band structure of Cu₂O, modulate the charge carrier dynamics of ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs, and thereby enhance the resultant photocatalytic performance. The vectorial charge transfer feature as well as the visible absorption capability makes the present ST-Au-Cu₂O NBs especially promising in practical photocatalytic applications such as overall solar water splitting. The ability to modulate the charge carrier dynamics of Z-scheme nanoheterostructures has significant implications in the development of photocatalyst technology, especially the strategies of materials selection and heterojunction engineering. The development of photocatalyst technology that operates with Z-scheme principle is particularly imperative from the view point of efficient solar energy conversion. By taking into account the underlying origins of the charge carrier dynamics of ST-Au- Cu_2O NBs as the guidelines, one may construct an essentially unique yet practically versatile Z-scheme platform capable of realizing artificial photosynthesis.

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